

1 **Investigation on Masticatory Muscular Functionality Following Oral**
2 **Reconstruction**
3 **– An Inverse Identification Approach**

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24 **Abstract**

25 The human masticatory system has received significant attention in the areas of
26 biomechanics due to its sophisticated co-activation of a group of masticatory muscles which
27 contribute to the fundamental oral functions. However, determination of each muscular force
28 remains fairly challenging *in vivo*; the conventional data available may be inapplicable to patients
29 who experience major oral interventions such as maxillofacial reconstruction, in which the
30 resultant unsymmetrical anatomical structure invokes a more complex stomatognathic functioning
31 system. Therefore, this study aimed to (1) establish an inverse identification procedure by
32 incorporating the sequential Kriging optimization (SKO) algorithm, coupled with the patient-
33 specific finite element analysis (FEA) *in silico* and occlusal force measurements at different time
34 points over a course of rehabilitation *in vivo*; and (2) to evaluate muscular functionality for a patient
35 with mandibular reconstruction using a fibula free flap (FFF) procedure. The results from this
36 study proved the hypothesis that the proposed method is of certain statistical advantage of utilizing
37 occlusal force measurements, compared to the traditionally adopted optimality criteria approaches
38 that are basically driven by minimizing the energy consumption of muscle systems engaged.
39 Therefore, it is speculated that mastication may not be optimally controlled, in particular for
40 maxillofacially reconstructed patients. For the abnormal muscular system in the patient with
41 orofacial reconstruction, the study shows that in general, the magnitude of muscle forces fluctuates
42 over the 28-month rehabilitation period regardless of the decreasing trend of the maximum
43 muscular capacity, which implies that the reduction of the masticatory muscle activities on the
44 resection side might lead to non-physiological oral biomechanical responses, which can change
45 the muscular activities for stabilizing the reconstructed mandible.

46

47 **Keywords:** Muscle forces, Occlusal force, Mandibular reconstruction, Inverse identification,
48 Sequential Kriging Optimization (SKO), Optimality criteria.

49

1. Introduction

50 Human masticatory functionality and capability is consummated by co-energizing a bunch
51 of masticatory muscles that contribute to the execution of chewing, biting, clenching, proper
52 speech, jaw movement, etc, in a highly sophisticated manner. The form of mastication and thus
53 stomatognathic performance would be substantially perturbed, and in most likelihood deteriorate,
54 following major oral interventions, such as the instalment of dental prosthesis and maxillofacial
55 reconstruction (Marunick et al., 1992a; Pepato et al., 2013; RENAUD et al., 1984). While the
56 influence of muscular alteration on masticatory efficiency induced by different oral surgeries has
57 been explored in literature, the observations remain rather inconsistent and even controversial
58 among those studies (Endo, 1972; Namaki et al., 2004). Despite the fact that such conflicts may
59 be ascribable to various factors, such as the demographic variance of the subjects and different
60 nature of cranio-maxillo-facial surgeries, lack of an effective and accurate measurement technique
61 makes solution of this issue rather challenging. Therefore, a new measurement system or protocol
62 for determination of mastication *in vivo*, normally functioning or even potentially malfunctioning,
63 is required.

64 Over decades, various techniques have been developed to qualitatively or quantitatively
65 determine muscular activities, such as electromyography (EMG) (Fukunaga et al., 2001; Van
66 Ruijven and Weijs, 1990), computed tomography (CT) (Katsumata et al., 2004) and optimization
67 methods (Schindler et al., 2007). Each technique has its own advantages yet considerable
68 limitations. For example, EMG is *in vivo* in nature but known for its incapability to accurately
69 quantify joint reactions and characteristics of motor skills, including the exact force magnitude,
70 orientation and muscle force ratio (Hattori et al., 2003). The CT technique is only able to
71 approximate the maximum capacity of muscular magnitude and its direction (Katsumata et al.,

72 2004). The optimization methods allow accommodating static equilibrium and physiological
73 constraints for estimating the magnitude, orientation and activation ratio (AR) of muscular
74 functional groups in various movements (Chou et al., 2015; Schindler et al., 2007), by minimizing
75 the summed muscle forces (Pedotti et al., 1978), summed joint forces (Osborn and Baragar, 1985),
76 summed reaction forces or summed elastic energies (Schindler et al., 2007), but it remains
77 uncertain which or any of these optimality criteria is correct most universally, with conflicting
78 results recorded. The criteria of minimal energy (Rues et al., 2008; Schindler et al., 2007), minimal
79 activation ratio (Pedotti et al., 1978) and combination of minimal muscle force and moment (Seireg
80 and Arvikar, 1973) were respectively found to better agree with the EMG data for various groups
81 of subjects in comparison with the other criteria. However, there is lack of solid evidence and
82 consensus about which, if any, of such optimality criteria, can be applied to characterize muscle
83 forces, in particular to the patients undertaking major oral interventions.

84 This study thus aimed to (1) propose a physiologically validated and clinically applicable
85 approach for the quantification of muscular activity through a mandibulectomy follow-up; (2)
86 compare the established inverse identification approach with the existing optimality criteria
87 through statistical models; and (3) analyze the muscular behaviour following the mandibular
88 resection at different rehabilitation stages.

89

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Clinical treatment and medical imaging analysis

A male patient aged 66, diagnosed with the squamous-cell carcinoma at the right molar gingiva in August 2013, was recruited to undergo the mandibular reconstruction with osteotomized fibular free flap (FFF). The fibular bone was harvested, segmented and modeled to accommodate the defect morphology, followed by the installation of a titanium reconstruction plate (Synthes, Solothurn, Switzerland) which was configured to be fixed monocortically. The CT scans were performed before the surgery and at 4, 16 and 28 months after the surgery, denoted as BS (before surgery), M4, M16 and M28, respectively.

The occlusal forces on the remaining teeth were measured after surgery at M4, M16 and M28 with a pressure-indicating film (Dental Prescale 50H, type R, Fuji Photo Film Co., Tokyo, Japan) (Hidaka et al., 1999) (Fig. 1a) as the study aimed to quantify the muscle force after the mandibular reconstruction. The force magnitudes were calculated by scanning the films using a pre-calibrated device (Occluzer FPD 707, Fuji Photo Film Co.). Bite records were acquired using silicone impression (Flexicon, injection type, GC Co., Tokyo, Japan) to identify coloured spots on the film and hence determine the occlusal contact regions on the lower arches (Fig. 1b & c).

The maximum muscle force (F_{max}), or the maximum muscular capacity (MMC) was determined by multiplying the muscle's physiological cross-sectional area ($PCSA$) with a constant of $\lambda = 4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N/cm}^2$ (Hattori et al., 2003; Peck et al., 2000; Pruim et al., 1980; Weijs and Hillen, 1985). Thus, each muscle force was determined according to the following formula:

$$F_{max} = PCSA \times \lambda \quad (1)$$

The $PCSA$ was obtained from whole muscle cross-sections measured from the CT sectional images of this patient (Fig. 2). The measurement was conducted according to the existing

113 techniques established (Weijjs and Hillen, 1984, 1985). The *PCSA* of each muscle, included the left
114 masseter (MA), left medial pterygoid (MP), left temporalis (T) muscle, left lateral pterygoid (LLP)
115 and right lateral pterygoid (RLP) muscle, was estimated by selecting the largest one from the
116 reference plane as well as the 10 planes that lie from 1 to 5 mm above and below or anterior and
117 posterior of each reference plane (Fig. 2).

118 **2.2 Finite element modeling**

119 CT images at BS, M4, M16 and M28 were registered and segmented with ScanIP 7.0
120 (Simpleware Ltd, Exeter, UK) and Amira 4.1.2 (Mercury Computer Systems, Inc., Chelmsford,
121 MA, USA); based upon which the parametric non-uniform rational basis splines (NURBs) models
122 were generated using Rhinoceros (Robert McNeel & Associates, Seattle, US); and imported into
123 finite element (FE) analysis code ABAQUS 6.11 (Dassault Systèmes, Tokyo, Japan). The bony
124 tissues were featured with the CT-based heterogeneous distribution (Field et al., 2010), which were
125 calculated through interpolation between the lowest and highest densities in terms of Hounsfield
126 units (*HU*) (Liao et al., 2016). The orthotropic cortical layer was also incorporated by employing
127 the curve fitting results as presented in (Liao et al., 2017). The full details of FE modeling,
128 including the material properties, loading and boundary conditions, as shown in Fig. 3, were
129 established by following our previous studies (Chen et al., 2015; Liao et al., 2015). The scalar
130 components that form the vector of each resultant muscle force are summarized in Table 1.

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132

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Table 1 Details of scalar components of the vector representing each resultant muscle force (Unit: N)

	\mathbf{F}_{Ma}			\mathbf{F}_{MP}			\mathbf{T}		
	MA_x	MA_y	MA_z	MP_x	MP_y	MP_z	T_x	T_y	T_z
M4	5.46	1.16	116.86	-25.66	8.88	112.63	41.69	-15.96	99.15
M16	3.51	1.2	114.48	-22.89	14.57	63.54	11.05	-30.31	111.83
M28	2.15	0.9	103.8	-50.37	18.61	89.25	17.42	-29.31	113.69
	\mathbf{F}_{LLP}			\mathbf{F}_{RLP}					
	LPL_x	LPL_y	LPL_z	LPR_x	LPR_y	LPR_z			
M4	-30.41	79.8	-12.63	37.94	89.88	-7.26			
M16	-24.29	23.54	-3.61	24.31	23.54	-3.61			
M28	-44.11	27.03	-9.96	42.6	36.66	-3.69			

134

135 **2.3 Inverse identification of muscle forces**

136 Inverse identification can be defined to minimize the deviation between the experimental
 137 measurement and numerical prediction in terms of unknown muscle force components (\mathbf{x}), as:

$$\begin{cases} \min & -J(\mathbf{x}) = -J(\mathbf{F}_{Ma}, \mathbf{F}_{MP}, \mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}_{LLP}, \mathbf{F}_{RLP}) \\ \text{s. t.} & [1.56, 0.83, 1.72, 0.53, 1.15, 0.99]^T \leq \left[\frac{M_a}{MP}, \frac{M_a}{T}, \frac{M_a}{LP}, \frac{MP}{T}, \frac{MP}{LP}, \frac{T}{LP} \right]^T \leq [2.15, 2.15, 4.07, 1.16, 2.61, 4.92]^T \\ & [59 \text{ N}, 39 \text{ N}, 34 \text{ N}, 34 \text{ N}]^T \leq [M_a, MP, T, LP]^T \leq [372 \text{ N}, 264 \text{ N}, 279 \text{ N}, 382 \text{ N}]^T \end{cases}$$

139 (2)

140 where \mathbf{F}_{Ma} , \mathbf{F}_{MP} , \mathbf{T} , \mathbf{F}_{LLP} , \mathbf{F}_{RLP} are defined as the muscle force vectors for Ma, MP, T, LLP and RLP
 141 (Table 1), respectively. The physiological constraints, which are based upon a series of previous
 142 literature studies (Al-Ahmari et al., 2015; Cruz et al., 2003; Faulkner et al., 1987; Gonda et al.,
 143 2014; Koriath et al., 1992; Osborn and Baragar, 1985) and the CT measurements obtained from
 144 this study, were utilized for establishing the minimum and maximum magnitudes; and the muscle

145 group ratios that restrict the relative magnitudes among different groups of muscles.

146 The cost function in terms of the deviation, $J(\mathbf{x})$, can be formulated as:

$$147 \quad J(\mathbf{x}) = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (F_{Oi} - F_{Ri}(\mathbf{x}))^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (F_{Oi} - \bar{F}_O)^2} \quad (3)$$

148 where i denotes the number of reaction forces (or occlusal measurements), N is the number of
149 muscle force components ($N = 12$ here). F_{Oi} and F_{Ri} are the experimental measurements of
150 occlusal forces and the resultant reaction forces obtained from the FE prediction, as

$$151 \quad F_{Ri} = |\mathbf{F}_{Ri}| \quad (4)$$

152 where \mathbf{F}_{Ri} represents the vector of FE occlusal reactions on the mandibular canine (C), first
153 premolar (P1), second premolar (P2) and second molar (M2), respectively. \bar{F}_O is the average
154 measurements of occlusal loads used to normalize the deviation of the cost function (Eq. (3)).

155 To reduce the computational cost due to iterative analysis, surrogate modeling techniques are
156 commonly employed as an alternative for formulating the responses of interest as per a simple and
157 explicit function with unknowns to be determined, such as the components of muscle forces in this
158 particular case. In the application of surrogate-based optimization, the Sequential Kriging
159 Optimization (SKO) algorithm, which considers both local region exploitation and global
160 exploration in whole design space, was adopted here to determine the unknown muscle force
161 components by matching the numerical simulation results with the clinical measurement data. The
162 detail of this method can be referred to a previous study (Fang et al., 2017).

163 To compare the proposed SKO approach with conventional gradient-based optimization for
164 its effectiveness and reliability in determining muscle forces, four commonly used gradient-based
165 optimizations driven by energy-consumption-minimizing strategy were also considered here. Of
166 them, several aforementioned optimization criteria, such as minimization of the summed muscle

167 forces (F_M), minimization of summed joint forces (F_J), minimization of summed reaction forces
 168 (F_R) and minimization of summed elastic energies were defined as in Eqs. (5)-(8), respectively
 169 (Pedotti et al., 1978, Osborn and Baragar, 1985, Schindler et al., 2007):

$$\min f_1 = \sum F_M \quad (5)$$

$$\min f_2 = \sum F_J \quad (6)$$

$$\min f_3 = \sum F_R \quad (7)$$

$$\min f_4 = \sum \left(\frac{l_F}{A \cos^2 \alpha} F_M^2 \right) \quad (8)$$

170 where l_F , A and α represents fibre length, physiological cross-section and pennation angle,
 171 respectively.

172 The constraints of each optimization problem were defined to be the muscle forces, occlusal
 173 and TMJ loads which should satisfy the static equilibrium of forces and moments, as follows:

$$174 \quad \sum \mathbf{F} = \sum \mathbf{F}_m + \sum \mathbf{F}_j + \sum \mathbf{F}_R = \mathbf{0} \quad (9)$$

$$175 \quad \sum \mathbf{M} = \sum \mathbf{r}_m \times \mathbf{F}_m + \sum \mathbf{r}_j \times \mathbf{F}_j + \sum \mathbf{r}_R \times \mathbf{F}_R = \mathbf{0} \quad (10)$$

176 where \mathbf{F}_m , \mathbf{F}_j and \mathbf{F}_R are muscular, joint and occlusal forces (reaction forces on teeth), and \mathbf{r}_m , \mathbf{r}_j
 177 and \mathbf{r}_R are the moment arms for each muscular group, which were evaluated from the CT images
 178 by assuming the single force vector, muscle attachment and contact conditions.

179 A linear regression analysis was performed in this study by using Graph-Pad Prism 7
 180 (GraphPad Software, Inc., CA, USA), to evaluate the coefficients of determination (R^2) and p
 181 values. R^2 were calculated for the correlation between the clinical and computational data, in terms

182 of the occlusal forces measured and calculated. The p values were calculated to test against the
183 null hypothesis that the overall slope of the fitted line is zero.

184

185

3. Results

186 3.1 Occlusal and medical imaging analysis

187 The clinical occlusal loads at time points M4, M16 and M28 are presented in Fig. 4. It can be
188 found that the right mandibular C, one of the remaining teeth after surgery, carried significantly
189 less occlusal loads in comparison with P1, P2 and M2 at Months 4 and 16. It therefore implies that
190 P1, P2 and M2 were the primary teeth executing the occlusal function. In addition, an increase in
191 the occlusal load was recorded from M4 to M28 for all the remaining teeth. It should be noted,
192 nonetheless, that the standard deviation (SD) was significantly high for the measurements at M28,
193 indicating substantial discrepancies of multiple measuring results *in vivo*.

194

195 3.2 Muscular force identification

196 PCSAs were measured and are presented in Fig. 5a. Overall, declining trends were observed
197 for most of the time and muscle groups from duration of BS to M16, except for LLP and RLP, in
198 which a slight gain of capacity can be found from BS to M4 and from M16 to M28. In addition,
199 no significant change was recorded from M16 to M28 for all the groups. The similar trend, due to
200 linearity, occurred to the maximum capacity of masticatory muscles which were estimated
201 accordingly and presented in Fig. 5b. All the five groups of muscles experienced evident declines
202 in magnitude from M4 to M16 but remained almost unchanged thereafter (Fig. 5b). The maximum

203 capacities of muscles Ma, MP, T, LLP and RLP were calculated to be 196.0 – 206.5 N, 145.4 –
204 151.3 N, 147.1 – 151.7 N, 181.7 – 191.2 N and 186.2 – 203.6 N, respectively. LLP and RLP, the
205 only muscle pair of this resected mandible, presented comparably similar magnitudes throughout
206 the entire observation period.

207 According to the identification results (Fig. 5b), the actual muscle forces presented different
208 patterns in a time-dependent fashion. The magnitude of muscle Ma decreased slightly during the
209 rehabilitation process; while muscle T increased slightly from M4 to M16, followed by almost no
210 change towards M28. By comparison, muscle MP showed minimal change in magnitude,
211 fluctuating around 116 N. Muscles LLP and RLP, on the other hand, varied greatly; specifically
212 they decreased at M16 and then increased at M28. It was also evident that muscles MP and T
213 exerted up to 80.3% of their corresponding maximum capacity during clenching, whereas muscles
214 Ma, LLP and RLP used only 58.2%, 57.3% and 49.8% of their maximum capacity, respectively.

215 The linear regression analysis in Fig. 6a shows that the SKO technique yielded fairly high
216 R^2 values, i.e. 0.92, 0.97 and 0.84, for time points M4, M16 and M28, respectively. The scatter
217 generated by SKO was well fitted by the regression line. Conversely, R^2 values determined from
218 the linear optimality criteria method were substantially lower and the corresponding data scattering
219 was relatively poorly fitted by the regression line, indicating that use of conventional optimality
220 criteria approach may not be able to generate accurate occlusal loads, at least for the case involving
221 major oral intervention such as jaw reconstruction across different stages of rehabilitation (Fig.
222 6a). As a result, the displacement contours generated by the linear optimality methods are visibly
223 deviated from those obtained from the SKO method (Fig. 6b).

224

225

4. Discussion

226 The sequential Kriging optimization (SKO) based inverse identification technique as proposed
227 in this study quantified the muscle force components (magnitudes and directions) during the
228 maximum voluntary clenching at different time points, by virtue of the *in vivo* measurements of
229 occlusal loads. In contrast, the conventional methods assume that the input, output (i.e. muscle
230 force, reaction force and joint force in this case) or their combination tends to be minimum overall
231 during muscle co-activation, physiologically (Chou et al., 2015; Nubar and Contini, 1961; Osborn
232 and Baragar, 1985; Pedotti et al., 1978; Schindler et al., 2007). Our comparative study showed that
233 SKO could detail the resultant muscular force magnitudes and directions with fairly high R^2 values
234 against the occlusal measurements *in vivo*, ranging from 0.84 to 0.97, attesting to its effectiveness
235 and accuracy. Conversely, the optimal control theory resulted in the occlusal loads significantly
236 diverging from the clinical measurements in the course of rehabilitation (Fig. 6a).

237 The deduction herein is that while the neuro-musculo-skeletal system still tends to reduce, if
238 not to minimize the consumption of energy, or the potential detriment to tissues, it is unlikely to
239 provide an absolute optimal behavior which may define a limit that our body can hardly achieve.
240 In other words, it can be sufficiently good rather than optimally best (Loeb, 2012). The central
241 nervous system (CNS) may be as complex as computing power but would address the masticatory
242 coordination in a way different from the single-objective optimization that seeks ideal solution
243 based upon a large number of statistically randomized samples and corresponding outputs (De
244 Ruyg et al., 2012). On the other hand, the CNS has no capability of foreseeing the results but
245 referring to the feedbacks from the relevant biochemical events accumulatively (Kistemaker et al.,
246 2010). Such an inherent distinction between human and computer may to a certain extent restrict

247 the favourability and effectiveness of using traditional optimality criterion approaches for
248 determining the muscular activation and functionality, at least for such a jaw reconstruction case.

249 Despite the ongoing applications of minimization strategy in human locomotion and
250 neuroscience studies, the forgoing conclusions indicated that the preferable muscular patterns (e.g.
251 during gaiting, arm or wrist movements and running) may not be always consistent with or solely
252 dominated by a single-objective optimization for minimizing metabolic consumption (De Rugy et
253 al., 2012; Hunter et al., 2010; Kistemaker et al., 2010; Miller et al., 2011; Morgan et al., 1994). It
254 may be irrational to use a single optimality criterion for determining entire masticatory muscle
255 activity during mastication. Further, it is speculated that as the mastication has a relatively
256 narrower range of motion, compared with the other types of locomotion such as gaiting and
257 running, the CNS may have relatively smaller ranges of control to regulate the muscular activity
258 beneficially, i.e. reduce the energy consumption or harm.

259 Due to its substantial role in stomatognathic performance, masticatory functionality has been
260 directly or indirectly measured using a range of different methods to date, including EMG (Van
261 Ruijven and Weijs, 1990), CT-based imaging analysis (Katsumata et al., 2004),
262 gnathodynamometer (Marunick et al., 1992a), colour-changing gum (Shibuya et al., 2013), gummy
263 jelly (Shiga et al., 2012), questionnaires (Sato et al., 1989) and the above-mentioned optimality
264 criteria (Schindler et al., 2007) techniques. None of these methods alone can produce the proper
265 quantification of muscle force in both magnitude and direction. The inverse identification approach
266 proposed in this study allows addressing this issue with its advantage of matching the clinical data
267 collected over a 28-month rehabilitation course.

268 As shown in Fig. 5, the results indicate that the maximum capacity of muscular contraction
269 could slightly decrease at the early stage of rehabilitation, caused by the reduction of *PCSA*. This
270 finding was consistent with that by Dicker *et al.* (Dicker et al., 2007), in which the shrinkage of
271 *PCSA* was found for muscles Ma and MP at the 18 months after the bilateral sagittal split
272 osteotomies. In literature, Katsumata *et al.* (Katsumata et al., 2004) also reported the reduction in
273 *PCSA* of Ma following mandibular setback osteotomy. This could be attributable to the muscular
274 atrophy as a consequence of the dissection of bony and muscular tissues by neglecting re-joining
275 with the surrounding tissues for recovering substantial muscle force over time, hypothetically
276 causing the regional interference with the blood supply (Conley and Lindstedt, 2002; López-Arcas
277 et al., 2010; Sieg et al., 2002). Nonetheless, it is found that *PCSA* stopped decreasing after M16 in
278 this specific case, indicating a stabilizing functional condition of the muscles in the resected
279 regions undergoing certain rehabilitation.

280 The activation ratio and actual muscle force generated here, however, witnessed dissimilar
281 patterns with irregular fluctuations (Fig. 5b). The activation rates of muscles Ma and T with
282 complete dentitions during maximum voluntary clenching were reported to be laid in between 70.3%
283 and 77.7% (Hattori et al., 2003), which is higher than that of Ma (53.0 - 58.2%) and on par with
284 that of T (71.7 - 80.0%), as calculated in this study. This implies that the hesitation of the patient
285 to bite, especially using the resected side, has a major effect on Ma, reducing its activation ratio
286 by supposedly 20% from the normal (Marunick et al., 1992b). Furthermore, due to the lack of
287 consideration of different biting strategies, the present results might only be able to explain a
288 particular situation (i.e. clenching) (Ogawa et al., 2006).

289 Furthermore, inconsiderable consecutive decreases in force magnitude of muscle Ma were
290 recorded throughout the rehabilitation follow-up, echoing the outcomes of the study by Nakata *et*

291 *al.* (Nakata et al., 2007) in which the Ma activity was measured to decrease slightly for 31 months
292 after mandibular prognathism. In comparison, MP presented no significant change from M4 to
293 M28 in the maximum muscular capacity, activation ratio and actual resultant muscle force (Fig.
294 5). Different patterns were observed with LLP and RLP, in which the activation ratios and actual
295 muscle forces decreased from M4 to M16, but subsequently increased and surpassed the M4 values
296 at M28. The loss of some major masticatory muscles in the resection side (right) led to non-
297 physiological conditions, which can considerably alter the normal muscle activities for re-
298 stabilizing the reconstructed mandible, implying that the higher activation rates of MP and T might
299 thus be related to the stabilization of mandibular position. The reason why the calculated muscle
300 forces were high for the LLP and RLP, can be due to the lack of suprahyoid muscles, such as the
301 mylohyoid muscles, which contribute on stabilization of the mandible during biting. Another
302 possible reason is that the vertical direction of the occlusal force was applied in FEA. The force
303 direction *in vivo* can actually tilt ipsilaterally (Kawata 2007). Considering the jaw biomechanics,
304 the lateral force vector of LPTs may be needed to ensure force vertically in the model.

305 One of the limitations in this study is the sample size for its patient specific nature. First,
306 only one patient, who underwent a major mandibular resection/reconstruction, has been followed
307 up over a rehabilitation course of 28 months. While it is not advocated, given the uniqueness of
308 the case, the findings of this study could still shed lights on the determination of a more realistic
309 masticatory pattern for a large population, including those with normal or nearly normal
310 masticatory functionality. A future study should therefore recruit more patients with demographic
311 and clinical variances over a longer course of rehabilitation. Second, the present study has focused
312 on the static equilibrium when occlusion occurred, whereby its dynamic characteristics were not
313 investigated, which could have caused the results to deviate from reality to a certain extent. Third,

314 the high standard deviation of occlusal measurements at M28 may render that the evaluation of
315 muscular activity at this time point could be less accurate, while it also indicates the instability of
316 masticatory patterns not long after the introduction of the dental crown.

317 Overall, this study developed a new framework by correlating the clinical measurements *in*
318 *vivo* with numerical modeling *in silico* at different time points for quantifying the magnitudes and
319 directions of oral muscle forces. An effective identification procedure was established here to
320 determine patient-specific muscular activities inversely in the course of 28-month rehabilitation.
321 This method has proven to significantly improve the accuracy and reliability of conventional
322 gradient-based optimization techniques which minimize overall energy consumption. This study
323 and SKO approach exhibits considerable potentials for the further development of digitalizing
324 major intervention of maxillofacial surgery.

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330 **Conflict of interest**

331 Authors have no conflict of interest concerning the present manuscript.

332

333 **Figure captions**

334 **Abstract.** This study developed a new framework by correlating the clinical measurements *in vivo*
335 with numerical modeling *in silico* at different time points for quantifying the magnitudes and
336 directions of oral muscle forces.

337 **Fig. 1.** (a) Occlusal force measurement using pressure-indicating film. (b) Silicone impression as
338 bite records from maxilla view, and (c) from mandible view.

339 **Fig. 2.** Estimation of muscle physiological cross-sectional areas (PCSA). (a) Reference planes for
340 measuring PCSA of Ma (red line), MP (red line) and T (purple line) and (b) LP (green line). (c)
341 Examples of muscle PCSA of Ma and MP, (d) T and (e) LPs.

342 **Fig. 3.** FE model with illustration of loading and boundary conditions (at M16).

343 **Fig. 4** Clinically measured occlusal loading changes with standard deviations, at 4(M4), 16 (M16)
344 and 28 (M28) months after mandibular reconstruction

345 **Fig. 5.** (a) PCSA changes before and after surgery. (b) CT-derived maximum muscle capacities and
346 the identified muscle force magnitudes at time points M4, M16 and M28; AR are also shown on
347 top of each bar.

348 **Fig. 6.** (a) Regression analysis between occlusal forces obtained from the proposed identification
349 procedure and experimental measurements; (b) Comparison of displacement magnitude contours
350 at M4, M16 and M28, using different optimization techniques. Vectors of the displacements at the
351 specific points of interests were illustrated.

352

353 **References**

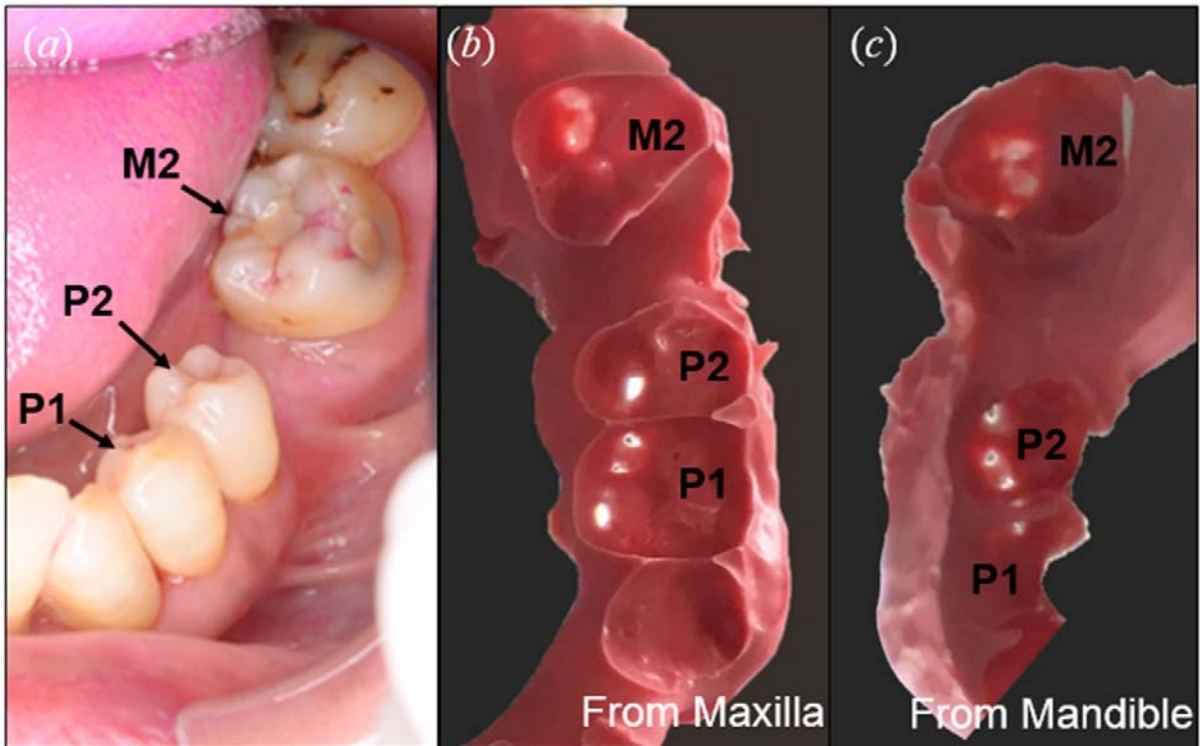
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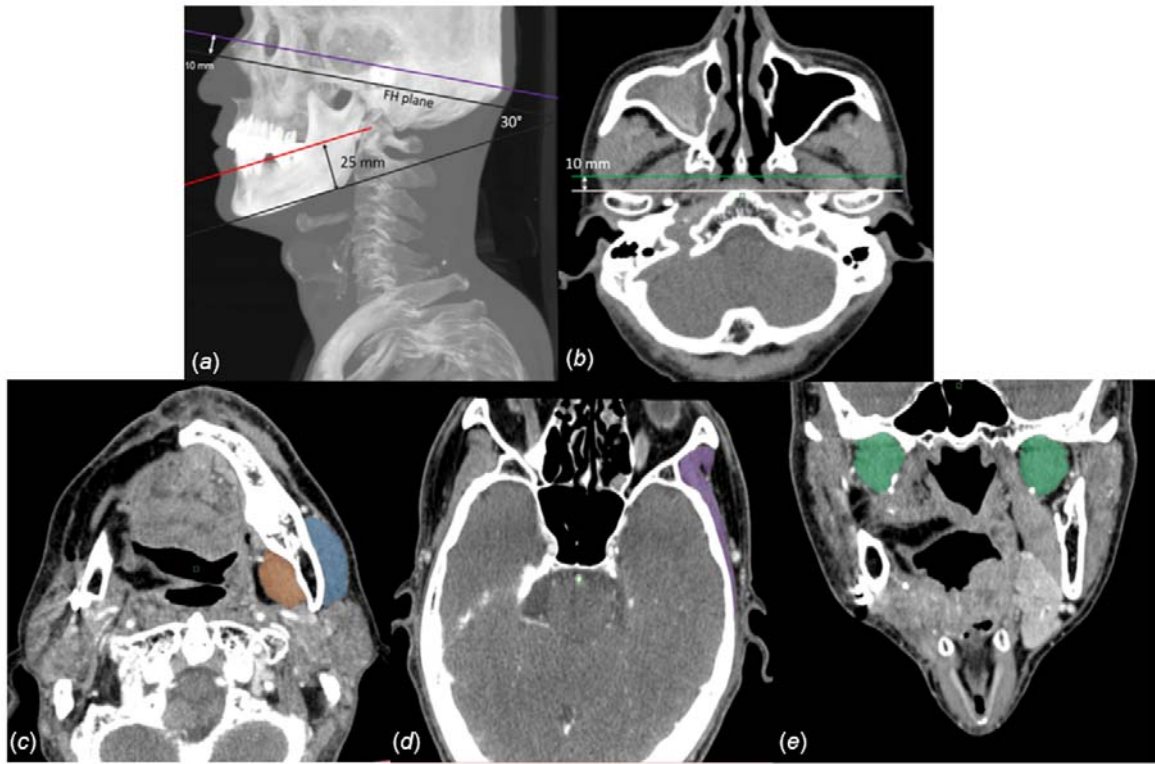
478 Fig.1



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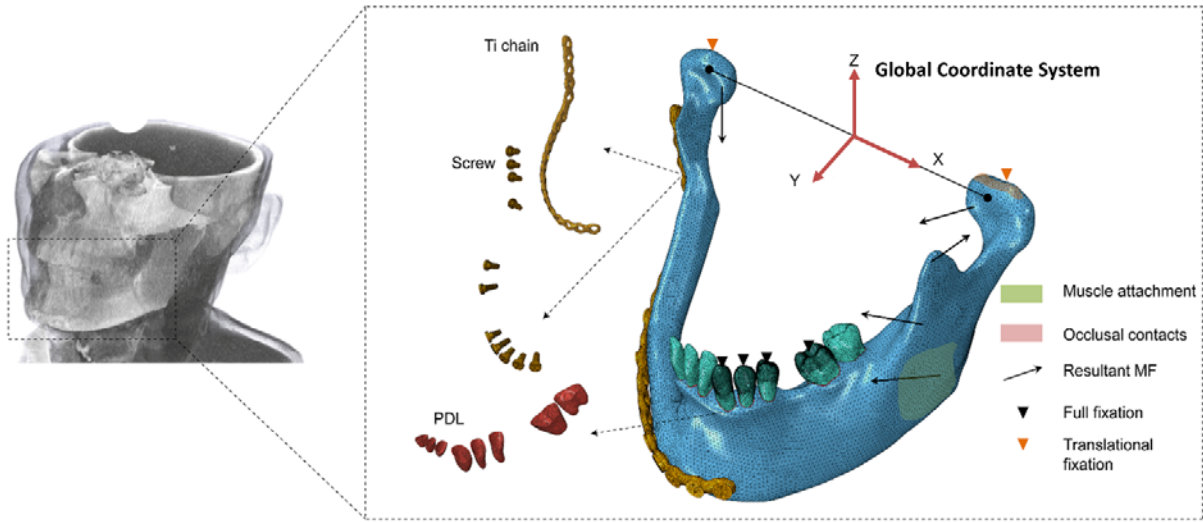
481 Fig. 2



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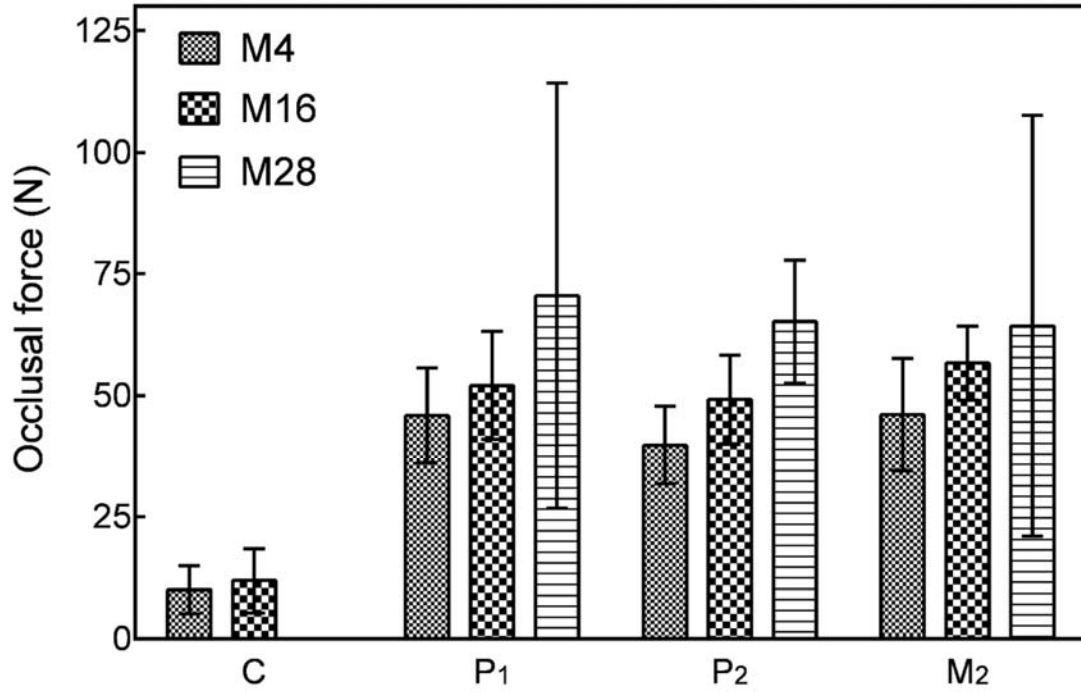
484 Fig. 3



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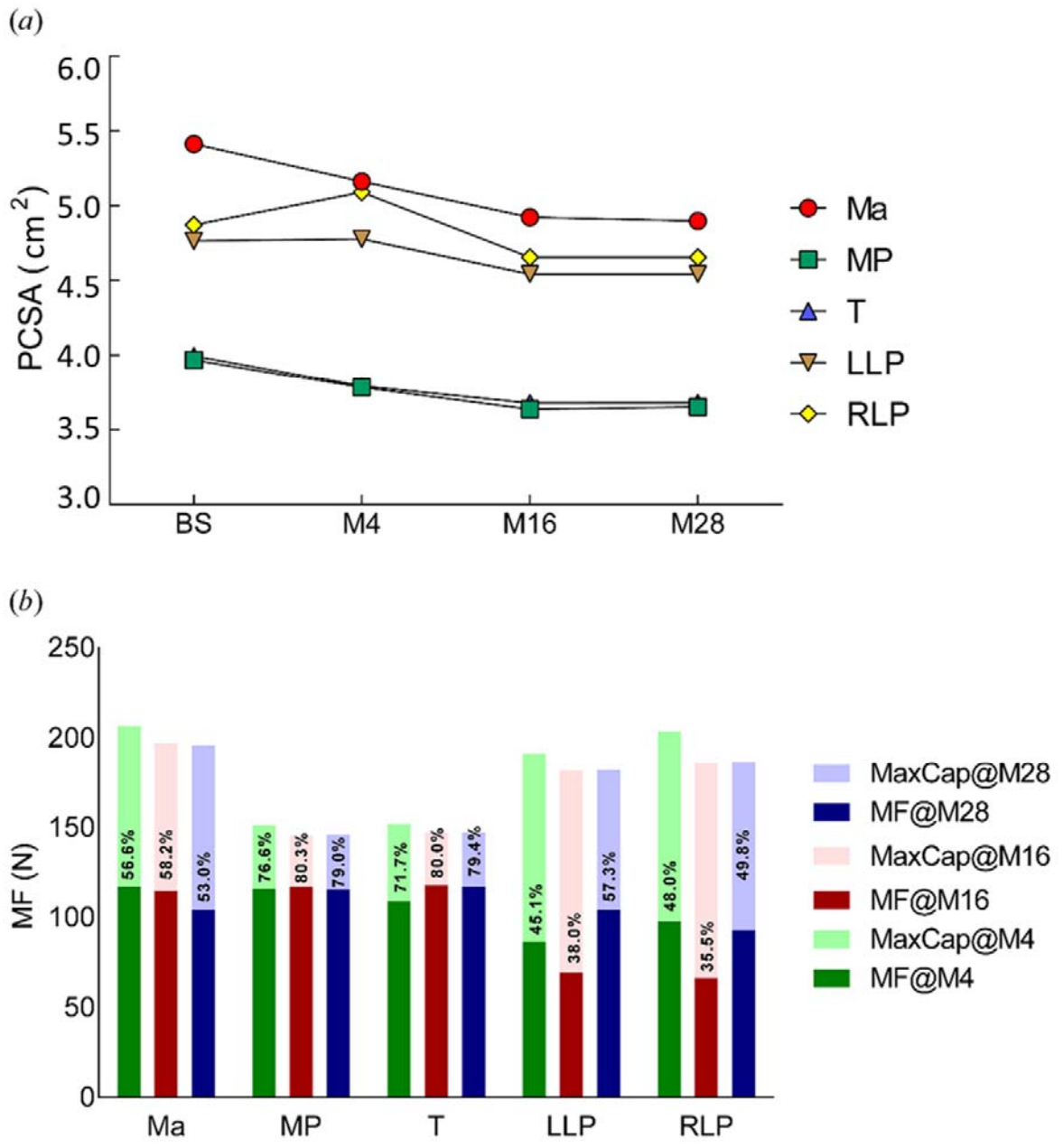
487 Fig. 4



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490 Fig. 5



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